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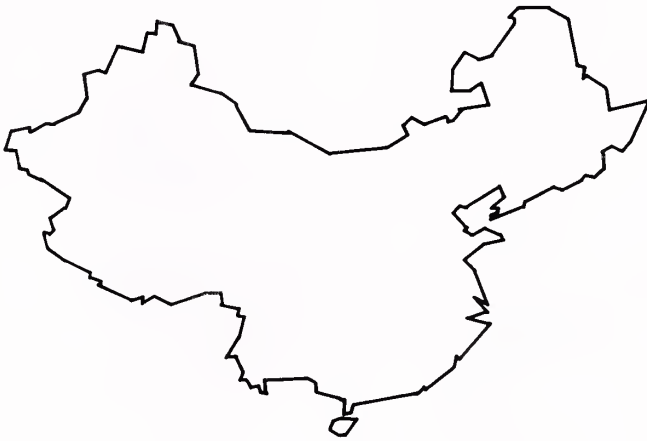
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The Education of National Minorities in Communist China





The Education of National Minorities in Communist China



by

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Foreword

This is one of a series of Office of Education publications on education in other countries. This study describes the education of Communist China's 54 national minorities against the background of that country's internal politics. It shows how the regime's attempt to integrate minority groups into the mainstream of Chinese national life has affected its educational policies in minority areas.

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March 1970

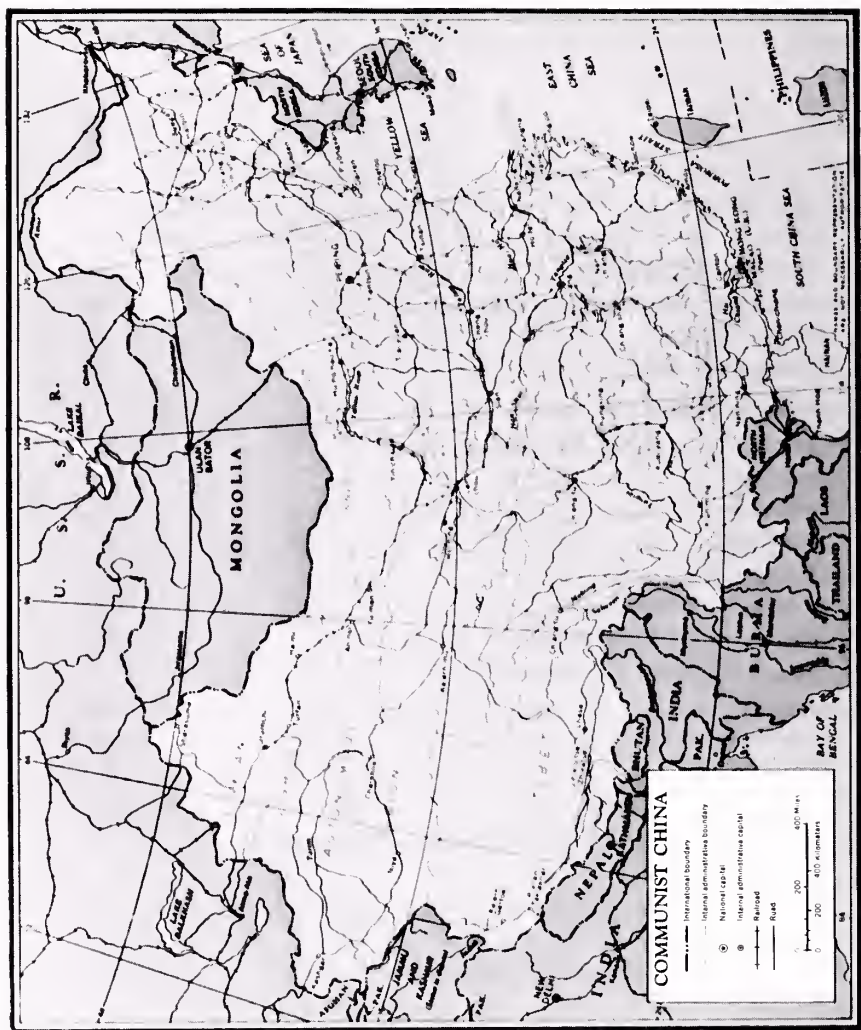
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NOTE: In 1965, Tibet became Tibetan Autonomous Region, and in 1967 an area surrounding the city of Tientsin became Tientsin Municipality (a Special Municipality).

I. National Minorities

History

Both as an empire and as a republic, China has contained many ethnic groups in addition to the Han Chinese, the major ethnic group. In imperial days (before 1911), the large non-Han groups, such as the Manchu, Mongol, and Tibetan, not only threatened the Empire's security but at times even conquered the Empire;¹ the small non-Han groups, such as the Chuang, Miao, and Yao (found mainly in Southwest China) each maintained its tribal entity by retreating into relatively unproductive areas of China in the face of advancing Han Chinese.² Traditionally regarded by the Han Chinese as culturally although not racially inferior, the non-Han groups as national minorities were usually politically subordinate in varying degrees.

After the advent of the Republic in 1911, especially after the Nationalist Party came to power in 1928, the Government adopted a liberal policy toward national minorities. The first national flag adopted by the Republic after the 1911 Revolution had five stripes — red, yellow, blue, white, and black — representing the five major ethnic groups—Han, Manchu, Mongol, Hui, and Tibetan, respectively. The Provisional Constitution of the Republic of China stated that "the people of the Republic of China are all equal in the face of the law, without distinction in terms of race, class, or religion."³ The Nationalist Government issued decrees forbidding the use of derogatory terms to refer to minority groups, and tried both by education and administration to improve the relationship between Han and non-Han peoples.⁴ The generally unsettled conditions in China during the Nationalist Party rule, however, made it exceedingly difficult to implement this liberalized policy, so that at the end of World War II the large minority groups had become virtually autonomous, and the small ones remained outside the mainstream of national life.

The Communist accession to power in 1949 marked the beginning of a new era in almost all aspects of Chinese national life. To consolidate its power and achieve national unity, the Communist regime has steadfastly pursued policies aimed at integrating the national minorities into the mainstream of Chinese life. The effect of these policies on the education of national minorities is the principal subject of this report.

¹ Among the many conquest dynasties, the best known are the Yuan (1260-1348), established by the Mongols, and Ch'ing (1644-1911), established by the Manchus.

² For a study of this historical phenomenon, see Herold J. Wiens, *China's March Toward the Tropics*, Hamden, Conn.: The Shoestring Press, Inc., 1954.

³ *Grand Statutes of the Republic of China*. Shanghai: Commercial Press, 1919.

⁴ As examples, see *The Organic Law of the Commission of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs*, promulgated February 1929; and *The Constitution of the Republic of China*, adopted December 1947 (chapter 13, section 6).

Data in this report are mainly from the years of Communist control before the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution of 1966; since that time insufficient data have been available to form a firm basis for more than tentative generalizations about recent trends in the education of national minorities.

Number and Location

Although Chinese Communist sources have not been consistent in reporting data on minority nationalities, the overall picture is clear. Totalling approximately 37 million and representing about one-fourteenth of the entire Chinese population, the people of minority nationalities form 54 identifiable groups.⁵

Numerically weak, the minority groups are scattered over more than half of China's territory, mostly in strategically important land areas. The large groups have been settled into Autonomous Regions. Five of these Regions are now in existence. Identified by area and date of creation, they are the following:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Inner Mongolia: May 1947 | 4. Ningsia Hui: October 1958 |
| 2. Sinkiang Uighur: October 1955 | 5. Tibet: September 1965 |
| 3. Kwangsi Chuang: March 1958 | |

Minority groups also live in Peking, one of China's three Special Municipalities;⁶ and in 15 of the 21 Provinces.⁷ The following eight Provinces and one Autonomous Region contain a total of 29 "autonomous districts" created especially for concentrations of a specific minority group or groups:

<i>Province or Autonomous Region</i>	<i>Autonomous district</i>	<i>Minority group(s)</i>
Hunan	Western Hunan	Miao and Tuchia
Kansu	Ling-hsia	Hui
	Southern Kansu	Tibetan
Kirin	Yen-pien	Korean
Kwangtung	Hainan	Li and Miao
Kweichow	Southeastern Kweichow	Miao and T'ung
	Southern Kweichow	Miao and Puyi
Szechwan	A-pa	Tibetan
	Kan-tzu	Tibetan
	Liang-shan	Yi
Tsinghai	Hai-nan	Tibetan
	Hai-pei	Tibetan
	Hai-hsi	Kazakh, Mongol, and Tibetan
	Huang-nan	Tibetan
	Kuo-lo	Tibetan
	Yu-shu	Tibetan
Yunnan	Ch'u-hsiung	Yi
	Hsi-shuang-pan-na	Tai
	Hung-ho	Hani and Yi

⁵ *Jen-min shou-t's'e* (People's Handbook). Peking: Ta-kung Pao She, 1965. pp. 115-16. See appendix A for further data on the 54 minority nationalities.

⁶ Special Municipalities, like Provinces and Autonomous Regions, are major administrative units directly under the Federal Government. The three now in existence are Peking, Shanghai, and Tientsin.

⁷ Following are the names of the 21 Provinces (* indicates that the Province contains minority groups): Anhwei, Chekiang, *Fukien, *Heilungkiang, *Honan, *Hopeh, *Hunan, *Hupei, *Kansu, Kiangsi, Kiangsu, *Kirin, *Kwangtung, *Kweichow, *Liaoning, Shansi, Shantung, *Shensi, *Szechwan, *Tsinghai, and *Yunnan.

Sinkiang Uighur

Nu-chiang
Ta-li
Te-hung
Ti-ch'ing
Wen-shan
Ch'ang-chi
I-li
K'a-tzu-le-su
Pa-yin-kuo-leng
Po-erh-ta-la

Lisu
Pai
Chingpo and Tai
Tibetan
Chuang and Miao
Hui
Kazakh
Khalkha
Mongol
Mongol

II. Policies Concerning National Minorities

General Policies

The Chinese Communists have shown concern over the status of national minorities in China for a long time. Although their regime did not prevail throughout China as early as 1934, nevertheless at that time they acknowledged—

... the right of self-determination of the national minorities within the territorial confines of China, to the extent that these nationalities have the right to secede from China and to establish their own independent states.¹

Concrete political action concerning the national minorities, however, was not taken until 1941, when the Border Region Government of Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia² for the first time established the Hui Autonomous County and the Mongolian Autonomous Region in areas then under Communist control.³

In September 1949, the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference adopted the Common Program, which served as the fundamental law of the land until the First National People's Congress adopted the 1954 Constitution. In dealing with minority policies, the Common Program emphasized:⁴

1. Equality of each of the national minority groups with the Han majority group.
2. Freedom of each of the national minority groups to preserve its language, religion, and customs.
3. Indivisibility of the Chinese nation.
4. Right to regional autonomy of national minority groups.
5. Right of members of national minority groups to serve in the armed forces.

The 1954 Constitution states:

The People's Republic of China is a unitary multinational state. All the nationalities are equal. Discrimination against or oppression of any nationality, and acts which undermine the unity of the nationalities, are prohibited. All the nationalities have the freedom to use and develop their own customs and ways. Regional autonomy applies in areas where a minority nationality lives in a compact community. All the national autonomous areas are inseparable parts of the People's Republic of China.⁵

In dealing with state structure and citizens' fundamental rights and duties, the Constitution includes specific provisions concerning national minorities consistent with the principles just quoted.

¹ *Outline of the Constitution of the Chinese Soviet Republic*, 1934, Article 14.

² A temporary Communist-established government within parts of the three Provinces of Shensi, Kansu, and Ningsia.

³ Hsieh Hou-ch'ou, "Wei-ta-ti min-tsu ch'u-yu tzu-chih cheng-ts'e" (The Great Policy of Autonomy for the Nationality Areas), *National Unity*, Peking, 1960, pp. 2-6.

⁴ *The Common Program*, 1949, Chapter 6, Articles 50-53.

⁵ *The Constitution of The People's Republic of China*, 1954, Chapter I, Article 3.

Educational Policies

The highest state organ in charge of nationalities is the Nationalities Affairs Commission.⁶ First a part of the Central People's Government, and after 1954 a part of the State Council, the Commission has a Department of Culture and Education. The functions of this department appear to be more advisory than administrative, however, since actual leadership and policymaking in the education of national minorities have been assigned to other levels of state administration.

In its early years, the Communist regime handled the problem of national minority education as it did many of the nation's other pressing problems—through some form of collective deliberation. In September 1951 the Ministry of Education convened the First National Conference on Nationalities Education.⁷ Attended by representatives of (1) relevant national Government departments, (2) Great Administrative Areas (governmental units composed of Provinces), Provinces, and Special Municipalities, and (3) 14 national minority groups, the Conference reached decisions that, although of a rather general nature, formed guidelines still largely unchanged.

The Conference reiterated the fundamental educational principle of the Common Program:

The culture and education of the People's Republic of China are now democratic, that is, national, scientific, and popular. The main tasks for raising the cultural level of the people are training of personnel for national construction work; liquidating of feudal, comprador, Fascist ideology; and developing of the ideology of serving the people.⁸

Under this general principle, the task of developing education among the national minorities was to be undertaken according to the particular educational condition existing in a given locality:

<i>Condition</i>	<i>Action</i>
Inadequate facilities	Provide initial reform
Some prior educational achievement	Develop it further
Adequate facilities	Consolidate and upgrade the educational program

The Conference called for the establishment of special educational agencies within the governmental framework of the Great Administrative Areas, Provinces, Special Municipalities, counties, and special districts. Each of these special agencies would be responsible to the one in the next higher political division and in this manner finally to the Department of National Minorities Education within the Ministry of Education. The name and size of each agency would determine the scope and nature of its education task. Its purpose would be to develop education among the national minorities in its area, with emphasis on training minority educational cadres, developing elementary education quickly, and establishing adult and youth literacy classes.⁹

⁶ Nationalities Affairs Commission, Department of Culture and Education. "Wei Cheng-ch'ueh kuan-ch'e chih-hsing tang-ti min-tsu yu-wen kung-tso fang-cheng erh fen-tou" (Struggle for the Correct and Thorough Implementation of the Party's Guiding Principle on the Language Task of the Nationalities). *Min-tsu yen-chiu* (Studies in Nationalities). Peking, 1958. No. 3.

⁷ *New China News Agency Release, Hong Kong*, September 21, 1951 and October 5, 1951.

⁸ *Jen-min shou-ti'e* (People's Handbook). Peking: Ta-kung Pao She, 1952. p. 526.

⁹ T'ang Yuan. "Fa-chan chung ti shao-shu min-tsu chiao-yu" (The Developing National Minorities Edu-

The Conference further decided that in all minority regions where a native language was used, the medium of instruction in both elementary and secondary schools should be that language—Chuang, Korean, Mongolian, Tibetan, Uighur, or whatever. In regions where a written language was either nonexistent or incompletely developed, the special educational agency should attempt either to create a script or to improve an existing one so that reading and writing could be taught in the mother tongue. Wherever practicable and desired by the minority groups, however, Han Chinese might be used for instruction.¹⁰

The Conference recognized that national minority education required special attention and consideration, particularly in view of its urgent need for educational funds, special treatment of minority students, and teacher training. The Conference recommended that the Central People's Government give high priority to training minority teachers (because the future of education in minority regions depends on them) and also provide additional subsidies for minority students and special funds for minority education. In response to the latter recommendation, the Central People's Government in 1952 established a special item in its administrative budget to provide subsidies for the education of national minorities.¹¹ In general, the educational task during the early years proceeded in accordance with these major guidelines of the 1951 Conference.

Following the Conference's recommendations, the First Five-Year Plan (1953 through 1957), when adopted in 1955, called for "the positive development of culture and education in national minority regions and the training of cultural and educational cadres."¹² By 1955, therefore, the education of national minorities was considered an integral part of national educational development. Since that time, the Government has issued no major policy statements concerning national minority education.

cation). *People's Education*. Peking. March 1954. pp. 40-42.

¹⁰ *National Unity*. Peking. July 1959. pp. 23-25.

¹¹ "Shao-shu min-tsu ti-ch'u ti wen-hua chien-she" Cultural Development for Areas of National Minorities). Resolution adopted by the Second Session of the First National People's Congress, July 30, 1955. *Jen-min shou-ti'e* (People's Handbook). Peking: Ta-kung Pao Shc. 1956. p. 48.

¹² *Ibid.*

III. Educational Structure

In general, the educational pattern for non-Han Chinese children is the same as for Han Chinese children—6 years of primary education followed by 6 years of secondary education.

Education facilities for national minorities (non-Han Chinese) are of three types:

1. *Non-Han Chinese schools using the native language as the medium of instruction*
(In areas with a large concentration of a minority group, the children in that group attend schools at all levels which have been established exclusively for them and which use their particular minority language.)
2. *Han-Chinese schools using Han Chinese as the medium of instruction*
(In areas with a minority group or groups not numerically large, the children in such groups generally attend Han Chinese primary and secondary schools. On reaching the level of higher education, minority students are selected for advanced training in universities and higher institutes of technology that offer the same curriculum for both Han Chinese and non-Han Chinese students.)
3. *Institutes for Nationalities*
(Established in major centers to train political activists among the minorities, the Institutes offer predominantly higher education. They have played a prominent role in creating a new educated elite among national minorities, not only politically but also culturally and economically.)¹

The 1951-58 increase, both of minority schools and of minority pupils wherever found, was impressive,² as disclosed by the table on page 8. (Comparable figures for years after 1958 are not available.) Although partially attributable to the very backward state of education in national minority regions at the time of the Communist takeover, this growth indicates the determination of the Party and the Government to integrate all minority groups into the mainstream of Chinese national life by means of education.

One should note, however, that the credibility of data published in Communist China—all of which of course has official Government approval—has been seriously questioned both inside and outside China.³ Although considerable educational progress undoubtedly has been made for national minorities, it has perhaps not been as substantial as some figures may suggest; and improvement in educational quality remains one of the major Government goals yet to be achieved.⁴

¹ Cang Yang-wu. "Ch'ien-chin chung ti min-tsu hsueh-yuan" (Nationality Academies in Progress). *National Unity*. Peking. August 1959, pp. 23-25.

² *Kuang-ming Daily*. Peking. June 8, 1958.

³ The communique of the Eighth Plenum of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, held in Lushan from August 2 to 16, 1959, contained an admission of earlier statistical exaggerations. See Franz Schurmann. *Ideology and Organization in Communist China*. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1966. p. 491.

⁴ Lu Ting-i. *Education Must be Combined with Labor*. Peking: Foreign Language Press, 1958. Lu Ting-i in 1958 was Director of the Propaganda Department of the Communist Party Central Committee.

Number and percent increase of primary and general secondary schools exclusively for national minorities: Selected years, 1951-58; and number and percent increase of national minority students in all primary, general secondary, vocational secondary, and higher education schools: 1951-58

[indicates source gave no data]

Year	Primary			Secondary						Higher ¹		
				General			Vocational					
	Schools exclusively for national minorities		National minority students in all schools	Schools exclusively for national minorities		National minority students in all schools	National minority students in all schools		National minority students in all schools		National minority students in all schools	
	Number	Percent increase	Number	Percent increase	Number	Percent increase	Number	Percent increase	Number	Percent increase	Number	Percent increase
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1951	^a 9,100	(2)	^b 943,285	(2)	^a 117	(2)	^a 45,628	(2)	^e 5,000	(2)	^e 2,000	(2)
1952	^a 11,066	21.6	^d 1,474,244	56.2	^a 180	53.9	^d 73,248	60.5	^e 19,000	280.0	^d 2,948	47.4
1953	^a 26,436	90.5	^a 2,546,432	170.0	^a 275	135.0	^a 163,387	258.1	^e 26,000	420.0	^e 6,000	200.0
1954			^c 2,465,000	161.3			^e 183,800	302.8	^e 24,000	380.0	^e 8,000	300.0
1955	^e 27,107	197.9	^e 2,470,000	161.9	^e 297	135.9	^e 193,000	323.0	^e 23,400	368.0	^e 8,800	340.0
1956			^c 3,152,000	234.2			^c 234,000	401.3	^e 33,000	560.0	^e 14,000	600.0
1957			^d 3,194,330	238.6			^d 276,926	506.9	^e 37,000	640.0	^d 16,100	705.0
1958			^d 4,239,700	349.5			^d 394,900	765.5	^e 64,000	1,180.0	^e 22,400	1,020.0

¹ Not including the Institutes for Nationalities.

² Each percent increase is figured from 1951.

SOURCE OF DATA: ^a *People's Education*. Peking, October 1954, p. 31. ^b *People's Education*. Peking, March 1954, p. 31. ^c *Wei-Li te Shun-Nien* (Ten Great Years), 1959, p. 177.

^d *National Unity*. Peking, October 1959, p. 41. ^e *Jen-min shou-4's'e* (People's Handbook), Peking: Ta-kung Pao She, 1957, p. 555.

IV. Primary and Secondary Education

At both the primary and secondary levels, most schools in a minority area are usually exclusively for the minority group. The proportion of minority (non-Han Chinese) schools to Han Chinese schools in such an area varies with the proportion of non-Han to Han Chinese inhabitants.

Primary

Literacy in the native script is the main educational goal in the primary schools of national minority areas. Adults, as well as children, attend these schools. The Government has attempted to relate teaching materials to a given minority area—especially materials for geography and history—so as to develop in the group a sense of belonging to the Chinese nation.¹

After 1964, when the Government issued the directives Two Systems of Education and Two Systems of Labor, it established schools offering half-study and half-work in all parts of the country. Although full-time schools have continued to function, some have already been converted into ones for half-study and half-work, and the trend has been to establish more.² As a result, the number of schools and pupils has increased.³

In rural minority areas, the Government has set up half-agricultural, half-study primary schools. By October 1965, Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region had more than 400 of these schools,⁴ which have been able to adjust to the needs of a people living in a region with geographical and socioeconomic conditions different from those of other regions. In areas where there are substantial concentrations of a minority, the schools are in a fixed location; where the people are scattered over a large area, the schools are mobile; and where the people are constantly moving about, the schools adopt the "delivering-books-to-the-doorsteps program."⁵ Such educational arrangements at the primary level have been reported in Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region, Kweichow Province, Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region, Tibetan Autonomous Region, and Yunnan Province.

¹ Chi-shou Nationality Middle School. "Wo-hsiao kuan-ch's min-tsu chiao-yu cheng-ts'e ti ching-yen" (Our School's Experience in Implementing the Policy for Nationality Education). *People's Education*, Peking. No. 8, 1956, p. 11.

² Chou En-lai. "Report on the Work of the Government." *Peking Review*, Peking. No. 16, April 21, 1959.

³ Chou En-lai. "Report on the Work of the Government." *People's Daily*, Peking, December 31, 1964.

⁴ Keng Chieh. "Chung-Kung shao-shu min-tsu chiao-yu Kai-k'uang" (General Survey of Communist China's Education for the National Minorities). *China Weekly*, Hong Kong. No. 30, September 1966.

⁵ Children reportedly have been found reading on horseback while tending grazing animals.

Secondary

Secondary education in China is divided into the first 3 years, called junior secondary, and the last 3 years, called senior secondary. Schools offering only junior secondary education far outnumber those offering all 6 years of secondary education, but most information coming from China has not distinguished between them. For many students, the 3-year junior secondary schools are terminal—only about 15 percent of the graduates continue their education.⁶

Included in secondary education are the following kinds of schools:

1. General — offering an academic course.
2. Agricultural.
3. Vocational — in the fields of fine arts, forestry and agriculture, health, and teaching.

Partly to meet the popular demand for secondary education but more importantly to supply the nation with trained middle- and low-ranking workers, the regime has placed great emphasis on vocational secondary schools, and (particularly since the 1958 Great Leap Forward) on agricultural schools.

Of the vocational secondary schools, those for teacher training are more numerous than other types. Junior normal schools train teachers for the primary level, and senior normal schools for the junior secondary level.

Although national minority areas have a large proportion of general secondary schools, secondary education has become increasingly vocational, largely as a result of the regime's concern about economic development in the backward regions and the need for trained middle- and low-ranking workers. The ideological premise that education must be combined with productive labor continues to serve as the foundation for all educational enterprises.

Secondary schools offer a wide variety of subjects,⁷ but the quality of instruction in those subjects differs widely, not only among areas but also among institutions.⁸

Secondary classes are sometimes attached to primary schools, usually in areas where independent secondary schools are unavailable or where special training classes for minority groups are needed.

Enrollment

In national minority areas, as in the rest of China, primary school enrollment has increased greatly. In the former, the 1958 primary-level enrollment was 3,190,000, constituting over 90 percent of the 3,510,000 total enrollment for all levels.⁹

The Chinese news media often give both total numbers of pupils and the

⁶ Robert D. Barendsen. "Education in Mao's China." *American Education*. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966. p. 18.

⁷ Practical subjects may include forestry science, meteorology, plant pathology, soil conservation, and surveying.

⁸ *People's Daily*. Peking. August 6, 1965.

⁹ Chou En-lai. "Report on the Work of the Government." *Peking Review*. No. 16. April 21, 1959. The figure of 3,190,000 represents minority students in minority areas only, whereas the figure of 4,219,000 in the table represents minority students in all of Communist China.

percent from poor families among peasants and workers.¹⁰ During the 1960's the media have released very few nationwide educational statistics, none for national minorities as a whole, and only meagre ones for separate national minorities. Educational statistics available for the present study concerned national minorities in Kansu Province, Ningsia Hui Autonomous Region, Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region, and Tibetan Autonomous Region.¹¹

Kansu Province

Inhabited by 15 minority nationalities, Kansu Province established more than 400 primary and secondary schools during the school year 1963-64. By June 1965, Kansu had a total full-time enrollment of 49,000 minority students. Of these, more than 46,000 were in primary schools, about 2,200 in general secondary schools, and about 330 in vocational secondary schools. In that year, schools exclusively for minority groups numbered 1,260, of which 1,245 were for the primary level and 21 for the secondary.¹²

Ningsia Hui Autonomous Region

In 1965, Ningsia Hui Autonomous Region had 53 secondary schools enrolling more than 13,000 students.¹³

Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region

From 1955-56, the Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region had tremendous increases in educational facilities and in enrollment. The latter increased 100 percent at the primary level and 400 percent at the secondary. On both levels, the percent of students from farming and working families was at least 80. Among the more than one million minority students, one out of seven was at the secondary level.¹⁴

Tibetan Autonomous Region

Since 1965, Tibetan Autonomous Region has established 1,596 primary schools attended by 48,000 children; and seven secondary schools. The 6-year secondary school in the city of Lhasa graduated 130 students in 1965.¹⁵ The Tibetan Nationality Institute in Hsienyang (Shensi Province), until 1965 called Tibet Academy, has supplied some of the Region's primary- and secondary-level teachers.¹⁶

¹⁰ Keng Chieh. op. cit.

¹¹ Concerning the reliability of such statistics, see chapter 3, footnote 3.

¹² *People's Daily*. Peking. June 15, 1965.

¹³ *Ibid.* February 6, 1965.

¹⁴ *Kuang-ming Daily*. Peking. August 20, 1965.

¹⁵ *People's Daily*. Peking. August 26, 1965.

¹⁶ *New China News Agency Release*. Hong Kong. August 9, 1965.

V. Higher Education

Colleges and Universities

Han Chinese Areas

Although there are no separate statistical data on the number of non-Han Chinese (minority) students in colleges and universities in Han Chinese areas, it seems clear that some minority students attend all major comprehensive universities, such as Nanking University (Nanking, Kiangsu Province), Peking University (Peking), and Wuhan University (Wuhan, Hupeh Province); and many of the professional and technical institutions, such as the Central China Institute of Engineering (Wuch'ang, Hupeh Province) and the Peking Normal University (Peking).¹ Both Han Chinese and non-Han Chinese are selected for admission to these institutions essentially on the dual basis of political reliability and academic excellence (with emphasis shifting from one to the other according to the regime's shifts in educational policy). The number of non-Han Chinese (minority) students at a given institution is determined to some extent by its prestige and its proximity to areas of minority concentration.

The number of minority students at colleges and universities in Han Chinese areas is also determined by the fact that the Government encourages such students to apply for admission and sometimes gives them preference over Han Chinese students. It does so for two reasons: To compensate for the scarcity of higher education institutions in minority areas and to integrate minority groups with Han Chinese for the sake of national unity.

During the early Communist years, the regime sometimes required colleges and universities to select minority students from the ruling classes of minority groups in preference to students from the working classes of such groups. It did so for two reasons. First, students from ruling classes would be more educable because of the cultural privileges they have had. Second, they would become so politically indoctrinated and so culturally assimilated as a result of their years at a Han Chinese institution that they would use their traditional leadership roles gradually to transform their native minority societies.²

Since the 1958 Great Leap Forward, however, the regime has required

¹ For a comprehensive listing of national institutions, see Joseph C. Kun, *Higher Educational Institutions of Communist China 1953-1958, A Cumulative List*. Center of International Studies, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass., 1961.

² I Wo-sheng, "chung-kung ti shao-shu min-tsu chiao-yu" (National Minorities' Education in China), *China Weekly*, Hong Kong, December 1, 1961.

higher education institutions to select minority students from the working classes in preference to students from the ruling classes.³

Because the Government makes no special provisions, however, for minority higher education students in Han Chinese areas, their number is rather negligible. From their long exposure to Han Chinese culture, they usually display a great degree of cultural assimilation. Their high educational achievements qualify them as leaders. When assigned to positions in their own communities, they perform functions entrusted to them by Party and Government authorities.⁴

Non-Han Chinese Areas

Considerably more important than the admission of minority students into Han institutions is the establishment of colleges and universities in non-Han Chinese areas, mostly the large Autonomous Regions. As of 1958, the latest year for which comprehensive data are available, 12 such institutions had been established in four of these Regions; in the fifth, the Tibetan Autonomous Region, no institutions of higher education exist as yet.

The special conditions in Tibet, especially before the Dalai Lama's 1959 flight, caused that minority area to be handled differently from the others. Whereas the other four Autonomous Regions had been established by 1958, Tibetan Autonomous Region was not established until 1965.⁵ Although great educational changes have occurred there since the Dalai Lama's flight, in higher education there has been no significant development.

Institutes for Nationalities

Among the most significant and unique creations of the Communist regime for minority education, the Institutes for Nationalities are politically oriented institutions of higher education. Their express primary purpose is to train political activists among minority groups; secondary purposes are to produce proletarian-based intellectuals and to train technical specialists. Although usually designated as institutions of higher learning, most Institutes operate special short-term training classes and special programs on the secondary and occasionally even on the elementary level. At times such activities seem to take precedence over the regular higher education program.

Development

In August 1950, the Northwest Institute for Nationalities was founded in Lanchow (Kansu Province); and in May 1951, the Kweichow Institute for Nationalities in Kweiyang (Kweichow Province). In June 1951, the Central Institute for Nationalities was established in Peking to implement two 1950 directives issued by the Government Administration Council (Experimental Measures for the Training of Cadres Among National Minorities and Experi-

³ Liu Ke-p'ing, "Tsai shao-shu min-tsu chung chin-hsing i-t'u fan-tui ti-fang min-tsu-chu-i ti she-hui-chu-i chiao-yu" (Conduct Socialist Education against Regional Nationalism among the National Minorities), *People's Daily*, Peking, January 11, 1958.

⁴ *National Unity*, Peking, December 1962, p. 18.

⁵ (a) Ling Nai-min, *Tibetan Sourcebook*, Union Research Institute, Hong Kong: the Institute, 1964. (b) *China Reconstructs*, November 1965, pp. 2-10.

mental Measures for the Establishment of Institutes for Nationalities).⁶ Afterwards, seven additional Institutes for Nationalities were established throughout the country.⁷

Before 1954, the Institutes for Nationalities ran political training classes aimed principally at the ideological indoctrination of minority cadres. The major political objectives were (1) to consolidate national unity, (2) to prepare the minority regions for autonomy, and (3) to strengthen the fraternal relationship among nationality groups. Although the Institutes gave preference in admissions to young men and women of working-class background, they also selected for indoctrination some members of the traditional ruling group, both lay and religious. The content of the indoctrination classes was almost exclusively political, centering around the themes of equality among Chinese nationalities, national unity, internationalism, and patriotism.

After 1954, when relations among nationality groups had become stable and Autonomous Regions had been established, the Institutes' political-training objectives shifted from consolidation to social transformation: they aimed to eradicate the "internal contradictions"—slavery, feudalism, and exploitation of the working class by ruling groups. This change in political objectives led to a corresponding change in the training of minority activists. That training now stressed class struggle and class education. The Institutes no longer admitted members of the "exploiting" classes. Instead, they gave the "exploited" classes special training to bring about social reform and to push revolutionary campaigns to successful conclusions.⁸

Central and Regional Institutes

Accepting students of all nationalities, the Central Institute in Peking is responsible (1) for training minority activists to operate in political divisions *above* the county level, with emphasis on inculcating Marxist-Leninist-Maoist theories; and (2) for training teachers and researchers in such fields as minority art, history, and languages.⁹ The teachers are intended mainly for the Regional Institutes.

On the other hand, the Regional Institutes stress training minority activists in each particular region to operate in political divisions *below* the county level. The Regional Institutes tend to emphasize more heavily than does the Central Institute practical or professional training in fields such as agriculture and animal husbandry, communication and transportation, culture and education, finance and economics, and politics.

In keeping with the regime's policy of promoting national unity, all Institutes accept Han Chinese students in minority art, customs, folklore, history, languages, and religion, for the dual purpose of promoting research on minority nationalities and developing minority areas.¹⁰

⁶ *Compendium of Laws and Regulations of the People's Republic of China (1949-1950)*. Peking: People's Publishing House, 1952.

⁷ Appendix B gives detailed information on the 10 Institutes for Nationalities.

⁸ Wang Feng, "Kuan-yu tsai shao-shu min-tsu chung chin-hsing cheng-feng ho she-hui-chu-i chiao-yu wen-t'i ti pao-kao" (Report Concerning the Question of Conducting Reform and Socialist Education among the National Minorities). *Hsin-hua Bi-Monthly*. Peking. No. 7. 1958. p. 22.

⁹ Chang Yang-wu, "Ch'ien-chin chung ti min-tsu hsueh-yuan" (Nationality Academies in Progress). *National Unity*. Peking. August 1959. p. 24.

¹⁰ "The Fast-growing Institutes for Nationalities." *National Unity*. Peking. August-September, 1961. pp. 7-9.

Size

By 1959, the total number of minority students attending the nine Institutes then in existence exceeded 12,000, a large proportion of them having become members either of the Communist Party or of the Communist Youth League. The teaching faculty and administrative staff numbered about 2,200 of whom approximately half were non-Han Chinese graduates of the Institutes.¹¹

By 1960, the Institutes had graduated more than 35,000 students from the various nationality groups;¹² and by 1961, the number of graduates had risen to almost 42,000 (appendix B).

Academic Work

The academic part of the Institutes' activity has been limited in scope, although most Institutes report a rather impressive number of fields of study (appendix B). Academic work in the natural and physical sciences seems to have been extremely limited, usually having standards no higher than those of most secondary technical schools. The one academic area in which considerable progress has occurred is minority languages. The Institutes for Nationalities, in collaboration with various departments of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, have suggested more than 300 linguistic plans to create or improve the script of about 15 nationality languages, including the Lahu, Li, Miao, Naxi, Sibo, and Tai languages.¹³ The Institutes have also provided intensive training in the Chinese language for minority students, who have in turn become effective agents for the gradual assimilation of minority groups.

Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region

In some respects, the experience of the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region is representative of higher education development in all minority regions.

Between 1952 and 1957, four Inner Mongolian institutions of higher education were established, in the following order: Inner Mongolian College of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Science, Inner Mongolian College of Medicine, Inner Mongolian Normal College, and the University of Inner Mongolia.¹⁴

After the 1958 Great Leap Forward, Inner Mongolia, like other parts of China, seems to have gone through a phase of spontaneous expansion of education; also as in other parts of China, new schools were often organized in a highly haphazard manner and without much substance. Reports since 1958 have failed to identify the Region's new institutions; but by 1959, as a result of reorganization and some expansion, it claimed to have in operation the following 18 institutions of higher education:¹⁵

- 1 college of animal husbandry and veterinary science
- 1 college of architecture
- 2 colleges of engineering

¹¹ *National Unity*. Peking. August 1959. pp. 23-25.

¹² *National Unity*. Peking. August 1961. p. 15.

¹³ *Kuang-ming Daily*. Peking. September 30, 1957.

¹⁴ Joseph Kun. op. cit. p. 425.

¹⁵ *People's Daily*. Peking. August 6, 1965.

- 1 college of forestry
- 2 colleges of medicine
- 1 college of railways
- 1 college of water conservation
- 8 higher normal colleges
- 1 comprehensive university

Enrollment and Graduates

Over a long period Han Chinese have migrated into Inner Mongolia; more recently during the Communist rule, the Government has actively encouraged its citizens to migrate into border regions, especially into Inner Mongolia. As a result, although the Region contains areas inhabited almost exclusively by Mongols, it has a Han majority and has entered the mainstream of Chinese national life more than have most minority regions. Inner Mongolia's higher education enrollment, reflecting the population imbalance, consists in large measure of non-Mongols (4,000, for example, of the 1958 total of 5,000¹⁶).

Graduates from Inner Mongolia's higher education institutions totaled over 2,500 in 1963. Their ethnic breakdown shows that the Han Chinese constitute the largest part of the total enrollment and the Mongols the largest part of the non-Han enrollment.

Total	2,500
Han Chinese	1,812
Mongol	588
Other minorities*	100

*Examples: Hui, Korean, Manchu, Owenke, and Tahir.

The 2,500 graduates had specialized in more than 40 fields, including agriculture, animal husbandry, arts, education, engineering, politics, and science.

Language Problem

Teaching in Han Chinese, Inner Mongolia's higher education institutions create a language problem for their Mongolian students who have attended secondary institutions teaching in Mongolian. Intent on training the Mongols to develop their minority areas, the former are attempting to solve the language problem by compiling lecture notes and supplementary reading materials in Mongolian.¹⁷

This language problem makes difficult the training of teachers for both the secondary and the higher education levels. The Inner Mongolian Normal College, the only normal college in the Region for which information is available, has made its principal task that of training Mongolian secondary school teachers. Few Mongols were qualified, however, to teach in the College itself. It has met this staffing problem by employing—

1. Han teachers, with Mongols as interpreters.
2. Its own graduates as assistant lecturers to be promoted as soon as possible.
3. Mongol graduates from other Chinese institutions of higher education.
4. Teachers from Outer Mongolia, by international agreement. (This practice has been discontinued recently because of the strained relationship between China and Outer Mongolia.)

Despite the difficulty in training Mongolian teachers, evidence exists that

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ *New China News Agency Release*, Hong Kong, August 7, 1963.

an increasing number of Inner Mongolia's college and university teachers are Mongolian.¹⁸

The pressing need for Mongolian teachers at the primary and secondary levels has led the normal colleges to set up 1- or 2-year courses in addition to the usual 4-year course. Some technical institutes also have introduced short courses in order to supply middle-ranking technicians for agricultural and industrial enterprises.¹⁹

¹⁸ Wen Ting, "Nei-meng-ku ti chiao-yu ch'eng-chiu" (Inner Mongolia's Educational Achievements). *Chiao-yu Shih-nien* (Ten Years of Education). Peking: People's Education Press, 1960. p. 285.

¹⁹ *Kuang-ming Daily*. Peking. January 28, 1964.

VI. Persistent Problems

Striving to become a modern world power, China under Communism has redoubled its efforts to achieve national unity. Attainment of this goal, the regime believes, requires that minority groups become integrated into the national fold. In its attempt to integrate these groups the regime has encountered various problems affecting national minority education.

Ideology

Among the regime's problems has been resistance, in varying degrees, to its imposition of the Maoist ideology, with its economic, intellectual, political, and social ramifications, on the Han Chinese majority. The imposition of this ideology on the national minorities has understandably met with more resistance. In response, the regime has mounted a long series of ideological mass campaigns and movements.

In handling minority problems, the Communist regime has gone through two major phases. The first, lasting from the beginning of the People's Republic in 1949 to the latter part of 1957, may be characterized as a phase of moderation. During that phase the regime attempted to build a legal and constitutional foundation for implementing fundamental policies. It organized, consolidated, and gradually expanded education as well as other fields. Although it did not lose sight of its ideological goals, it pursued them with moderation.

The second phase may be characterized as a phase of increasing minority resistance. By the end of 1957, as the regime's mass campaigns intensified, minority resistance against both the Government and the Communist Party stiffened, leading to a major policy shift by the Government.

Early in 1958, the Chairman of the Commission of Nationalities Affairs ordered that socialist education against regional nationalism be intensified. According to him, regional nationalism had been manifesting itself in four general ways:¹

1. Hatred for and opposition to the Party as the instrument of Han Chinese chauvinism.
2. Opposition to the Government's relocation of Han Chinese peasants and workers in minority areas.
3. Rejection of Government, Party, and Han Chinese activist leadership.
4. Demand by separatists for independence "even at the expense of Socialism."

¹ Liu Ke-p'ing, "Tsai shao-shu min-tsu chung chin-hsing i-tz'u fan-tui ti-fang min-tsu-chu-i ti she-hui-chu-i chiao-yu" (Conduct Socialist Education against Regional Nationalism among the National Minorities). *People's Daily*, Peking, January 11, 1958.

Specific ways of manifesting regional nationalism—or, in other words, of showing separatist sentiment and action—arose in certain minority areas. For example, in 1957 some national minorities in the Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region charged that the steady flow of Han Chinese into their Region violated the constitutional provision granting autonomy to minorities and had brought disasters to the Region.²

Despite the constitutional provision for minority autonomy, it is clear that the regime intends to consolidate Han Chinese control in minority areas and gradually assimilate minority groups into the Han Chinese majority.

Administration

To weaken minority power and facilitate central rule, the regime has employed three major administrative devices when establishing autonomous minority areas:³

1. Incorporating some predominately Han Chinese areas into autonomous minority areas so that the Han Chinese become the majority. (For example, when the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region was established in 1947, 34 percent of its total population of 2.4 million were Mongols. After the 1954 and 1955 incorporation of the Provinces of Suiyan and Jehol into that Region, 11 percent of its total population of 9.7 million were Mongols. In the Kwangsi Chuang Autonomous Region, 7 million Chuang people are outnumbered by 11 million Han Chinese.)
2. Placing some minority peoples, despite their geographic propinquity, into separate administrative units so that they cannot form large organic units.
3. Setting up small autonomous units within some of the large Autonomous Regions to prevent the most numerous group in a particular Region from becoming politically dominant. (For example, the Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region contains several autonomous *chou* and *hsien*, which are, respectively, administrative units above the county level and counties.)

Also, to facilitate central rule and minority integration, the regime has extended China's network of communication and transportation into areas where minority nationalities are concentrated. Construction of major railroad trunks—such as those (1) from Lanchow (Kansu Province) to Sinkiang (Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region), (2) from Lanchow (Kansu Province) into Tsinshai Province, and (3) from Tienhsui (Kansu Province) to Chengtu (Szechwan Province)—has greatly improved communications and facilitated integration of minority groups.⁴

Languages

The problems arising from a multiplicity of languages among minority

² Sai-fu-ting, "chien-chueh fan-tui ti-fang min-tsu-chu-i, wei she-hui-chu-i ti wei-ta sheng-li erh fen-tou" (Resolutely Oppose Regional Nationalism, Struggle for the Great Victory of Socialism). *New China Bi-Monthly*, Peking, No. 2, 1958, pp. 19-21.

³ Ch'in Ti, "Shih-nien lai ti Chung-kung Cheng-fa kung-tso" (Ten Years of Communist China's Work in Politics and Law). *Chung-kung shih-nien* (Communist China after Ten Years). Hong Kong: Union Publishing House, 1960, pp. 62-3.

⁴ (a) *New Atlas of China*. Hong Kong: Tachung Book Co., 1961, p. 3. (b) Pin Hsing, "Fa tzu hsing-ti ti ke" (A Song that Comes from the Bottom of the Heart). *National Unity*, Peking, October 1959, p. 9.

groups has received much attention from the Communist regime since its early days. Of the 54 officially recognized national minorities, only 22 have written languages of their own (appendix A). Recognizing the complexity and diversity of the minority language problems, the regime in 1950 organized seven language study teams composed of more than 700 members from about 20 minority groups. These study teams conducted surveys of the languages of 33 minority nationalities in 16 Provinces and Autonomous Regions, and on the basis of these surveys drew up programs for 19 languages to use the Latin alphabet and to conform with accepted principles for making the Chinese language phonetic.

Encouragement of Minority Languages

Systematic study of minority languages began in 1951 when Peking University established a special course and the Chinese Academy of Sciences (Peking) a night class in a minority language. In 1952 the Central Institute for Nationalities (Peking) started a language department with 58 classes offering a total of 20 minority languages, and in 1954 Yen-pien University (Yenchi, Kirin Province) was using Korean as the medium of instruction for all subjects.⁵

Eighteen minority languages were used between 1952 and 1958 in the publication of 9,058 titles, totaling 7,350,000 copies (according to incomplete estimates). In Tibetan alone, 408 titles, totaling 3,780,000 copies were published between 1953 and 1958. Most minority language books dealt with Marxist-Leninist canons, culture, economics, education, and political theory.⁶ Minority languages have also appeared increasingly in broadcasts, films, and plays. All such productions have aimed at disseminating information and news that will aid the cultural and political integration of national minorities.⁷

Integration of Minority Languages Into Han Chinese

After the 1957 mass campaign to impose Maoist ideology, the regime's earlier policy of encouraging minority languages changed. Educational institutions, especially the Regional Institutes for Nationalities, began to train students as specialists in minority languages in order to—⁸

1. Accelerate integration of minority languages with the Han Chinese language.
2. Resolve minority language problems by scientific investigation, reform, and creation.
3. Satisfy what the regime asserted was the minorities' desire to learn the Han Chinese language.

On this third point the press in 1959 claimed that the minorities were showing a "high tide" of interest in learning both spoken and written Han Chinese, that "all levels of schooling" had added courses in the language, and that institutions of higher education were teaching "not a few courses."⁹

⁵ Fu Mou-chi. "Min-tsu yu-wen kung-tso ti hui-huang ch'eng-chiu" (Brilliant Achievements in Minority Language Work). *New China Bi-Monthly*. Peking. No. 16. 1959. p. 110.

⁶ *Kirin Daily*. August 4, 1954.

⁷ *National Unity*. Peking. January 1963. pp. 9-12.

⁸ Fou Mou-chi. op. cit. p. 111.

⁹ *National Unity*. September 1959. p. 5.

VII. Period of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution

On the basis of presently available data, a detailed account of the impact upon minority education of the frenetic Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution which engulfed China from 1966 to 1969 is impossible. Nevertheless, it is clear that the Cultural Revolution has profoundly affected political and educational life in the national minority areas as well as in other parts of China.

Declaring that the foremost objective of the Cultural Revolution was to eradicate all "anti-Mao, anti-Party, and anti-Socialism" forces in national minority regions, the revolutionaries in August 1966 began to rush into border regions to organize Red Guards among the students. Normal educational activities stopped; intense struggles for "power seizure" broke out; numerous political and educational leaders in the Autonomous Regions of Inner Mongolia, Sinkiang Uighur, and Tibet and elsewhere were purged; and subsequently, revolutionary committees were organized. Those purged¹ invariably were accused of actively opposing Mao Tse-tung's policy statement that "the nationality problem in China is a class problem," and of undermining Chinese unity.

An outstanding feature of the Cultural Revolution in minority areas is the Government's relentless struggle against what the Maoists term "regional nationalism." The Government has taken stringent measures against all party and social factions closely identified with national minority interests.

The Government has also forcibly moved from Han Chinese areas to border regions large numbers of young Han Chinese men and women, both to release tension caused by large concentrations of students in the former areas and to suppress regional nationalism in the latter. In 1966 alone, it moved an estimated 30,000 students from the Shanghai area to Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region to form the Army Corps for Productive Construction, dedicated to developing border areas.²

China's international situation, especially since the Cultural Revolution, has increased the regime's concern over China's border regions. Tension between China and the Soviet Union has significantly affected the regime's policy toward the Hui, the Koreans, the Mongols, the Uighurs, and other minorities in northern China, from Sinkiang Uighur to the Yellow Sea. Also, tension between China and India has led the former to tighten control over Tibet

¹ Notable among those purged were Li Chih, First Secretary of the Party Committee of the city of Hu-ho-hao-t'e; Yang Han-chang, acting vice president of the University of Inner Mongolia; Chen Ping-yu, acting mayor of Hu-ho-hao-t'e. See *Fei-ch'ing nien-pao*, 1967. Taipei, 1968. p. 118.

² Ibid. p. 119.

and neighboring regions. The military presence of the United States in Southeast Asia gives impetus to China's efforts in the south and southwest. For both domestic and international reasons, therefore, the Communist regime in China will probably exert increasing pressure upon national minorities not only to develop economically and culturally, but more importantly to integrate with the Han Chinese majority. This pressure undoubtedly will be reflected in intensified efforts by the régime to integrate the education of national minorities with education throughout the nation.

Appendixes

Appendix A. Population, Location, Religion, Written Language, and Main Occupation of Minority Nationalities:¹
1965

[..... indicates source gave no data or item is not applicable]

Minority nationality	Population ²	Location		Religion		Written language	Occupation	
		Autonomous Region	Province(s)	Major	Minor		Major	Minor
Achang	10,000		Yunnan	Buddhism		None	Agriculture Handicraft	
Chiang	42,000		Szechwan	Lamaism		do	Agriculture	
Chilao	23,000	Kwangsi Chuang	Kweichow	Polytheism		do	do	Handicraft
Chiang	42,000		Szechwan	Lamaism		do	do	
Ching	4,400	Sinkiang Uighur	Kwangtung	Taoism	Christianity	Ching	Fishing	Agriculture
Chingpo	100,000		Yunnan	Christianity	Polytheism	Chingpo	Agriculture	
Chuang	7,780,000	Kwangsi Chuang	Kwangtung Yunnan	Polytheism		Chuang ³	do	
Hani	540,000		Yunnan	do		None	do	
Hoche	600		Heilungkiang	Samen		do	Agriculture Fishing Hunting	
Hui	1,640,000	Inner Mongolia Sinkiang Uighur	Heilungkiang Kansu Kirin Liaoning Tsinghai	Lamaism		Mongolian	Agriculture Animal husbandry	
Kaoshan	200,000		Taiwan	Polytheism		None	Agriculture	
Kazakh	530,000	Sinkiang Uighur	Kansu Tsinghai	Islam		Kazakh	Animal husbandry	Agriculture

Khalkha ⁴	do					Khalkha ³			do
Korean	Inner Mongolia	68,000			Heilungkiang Kirin Liaoning	Buddhism	Christianity	Korean	Agriculture
		1,250,000							
Lahu		180,000			Yunnan	Polytheism	Christianity	Lahu	do
Li		390,000			Kwangtung (Hainan Island)	do		Li ³	do
Lisu		310,000			Yunnan	Christianity	Polytheism	Lisu ³	Agriculture Animal husbandry
Manchu	Inner Mongolia Sinkiang Uighur	2,430,000			Heilungkiang Hopeh Kirin Liaoning			Chinese	Similar to those of Han Chinese
Maonan	Kwangsi Chuang	24,000						None	Agriculture
Miao	Kwangsi Chuang	2,680,000			Hunnan Kwangtung Kweichow Yunnan	Polytheism		Miao	do
Molao	Kwangsi Chuang	44,000						None	do
Monba	Tibet	3,800							
Mongol	Inner Mongolia Sinkiang Uighur	1,640,000			Heilungkiang Kansu Kirin Liaoning Tsinghai	Lamaism		Mongolian	Agriculture Animal husbandry

See footnotes at end of appendix.

Appendix A. Population, Location, Religion, Written Language, and Main Occupation of Minority Nationalities: 1965 (continued)

[indicates source gave no data or item is not applicable]

Minority nationality	Population ²	Location		Religion		Written language	Occupation	
		Autonomous Region	Province (s)	Major	Minor		Major	Minor
Nasi	150,000		Yunnan	Lamaism Polytheism		Nasi	Agriculture	
Nu	13,000		do	Polytheism		None	do	
Olunchun	2,400	Inner Mongolia	Heilungkiang	Samen		do	Hunting	Agriculture Animal husbandry
Owenke	7,200	do	Heilungkiang	do	Christianity	do	Hunting	Agriculture
Pai	680,000		Yunnan	Polytheism	Christianity	do	Agriculture	
Pao-an	5,500		Kansu	Islam		do	do	
Penglung	6,300		Yunnan	Buddhism		do	do	
Pulang	41,000		do	do		do	do	
Pumi ⁵	15,000		do			Pumi	do	
Puyi ⁶	1,310,000		Kweichow	Polytheism		Chuang ³	do	
Russian	9,700	Sinkiang Uighur	Heilungkiang			Russian	do	Commerce
Sala	31,000		Tsinghai	Islam		None	do	
Shui	160,000		Kweichow	Polytheism		Shuichia	do	
Sibo	21,000	Sinkiang Uighur	Heilungkiang Kirin	Samen		Sibo	do	
Tadjik	15,000	Sinkiang Uighur		Islam		None	Animal husbandry	
Tahur	50,000	Inner Mongolia Sinkiang Uighur	Heilungkiang	Polytheism Samen	Lamaism	do	Agriculture	

Tai	500,000		Yunnan	Buddhism		Tai	do	Agriculture
Tartar	4,300	Sinkiang Uighur		Islam		Uighur	Commerce Handicraft	
Tibetan	2,770,000	Tibet	Kansu Szechwan Tsinghai Yunnan	Lamaism		Tibetan	Agriculture Animal husbandry	
Tu	63,000		Tsinghai	do		None	Agriculture	
Tuchia	600,000		Hunan Hupeh Kweichow Szechwan	Polytheism		do	do	Handicraft
Tulung	2,700		Yunnan	do		do	do	
T'ung	820,000	Kwangsi Chuang	Hunan Kweichow	do		do	do	Forestry
Tungshiang	150,000		Kansu	Islam		do	do	
Uighur	3,900,000	Sinkiang Uighur		do		Uighur	do	Commerce Handicraft
Uzbek	11,000	do		do		Uzbek	Commerce Handicraft	Agriculture
Wa ⁷	280,000		Yunnan	Polytheism		Kawa	Agriculture	Hunting
Yao	740,000	Kwangsi Chuang	Hunan Kwangtung Yunnan	do		None	do	Forestry
Yi	3,260,000	do	Kweichow Szechwan Yunnan	Polytheism		Yi ³	Agriculture Animal husbandry	

See footnotes at end of table.

Appendix A. Population, Location, Religion, Written Language, and Main Occupation of Minority Nationalities:¹
1965 (continued)

[— indicates source gave no data or item is not applicable]

Minority nationality	Population ²	Location		Religion		Written language	Occupation	
		Autonomous Region	Province (s)	Major	Minor		Major	Minor
Yu	220,000		Chekiang Fukien Kiangsi Kwangtung			None	Agriculture	
Yuku	4,600		Kansu	Lamaism		do	Animal husbandry	

SOURCE OF DATA: *Yen-min Shen-f'eng* (People's Handbook). Peking: Ts'ung-pao Shue, 1965.

¹ Fifty-four minority nationalities are listed.

² The actual figure is higher than the rounded figure given here.

³ A newly created language.

⁴ Also called Kireiz.

⁵ Also called Hsi-fan.

⁶ Also called Chungchia.

⁷ Also called Kawa.

Appendix B. Selected Data on Institutes for Nationalities: 1961 ¹

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Institute	City and Province or Autonomous Region	Year founded	Total students	Students graduated		Fields of study
				Total	Minority nationalities represented	
Central.....	Peking (<i>Special Municipality</i>)	1951	2,784	3,931	46	History Languages Literature and arts Politics
South Central ²	Wuhan (<i>Hubei Province</i>)	1951	973	3,328	20	History Language and literature Mathematics Political education
Kwangsi.....	Nanning (<i>Kwangsi Chuang Autono- mous Region</i>)	1952	722	4,959	10	Chinese language History Mathematics Physics Politics
Kwangtung.....	Canton (<i>Kwangtung Province</i>)	1958	80	289	7	Political training Technical training
Kweichow.....	Kweiyang (<i>Kweichow Province</i>)	1951		3,933	26	
Northwest.....	Lanchow (<i>Kansu Province</i>)	1950	3,046	6,566	16	Animal husbandry and veterinary science Arts Education Language Medical science Politics Railways

¹ See footnotes at end of appendix.

Appendix B. Selected Data on Institutes for Nationalities: ¹ 1961 (continued)

Southwest	Chengtu (<i>Szechwan Province</i>)	1951	2,582	9,714	25	Agriculture Animal husbandry and veterinary science Biology and geography Chinese language and literature Mathematics Physics and chemistry Politics
Tibet	Hanyang (<i>Shensi Province</i>)	1965	400			Agriculture Animal husbandry and veterinary science Education Finance and economics Medicine Tibetan language
Tsinghai	Sining (<i>Tsinghai Province</i>)	1956	1,157	1,488	10	Chinese language and literature: Han language Tibetan language Physical education Physics and chemistry Politics and history
Yunnan	Kunming (<i>Yunnan Province</i>)	1951	1,372	7,765	21	History Languages Literature and arts Nationalities Politics

¹ For the Tibet Institute for Nationalities the date is 1965.

² Branch of the Central Institute.

SOURCE OF DATA: For all Institutes except the Tibet Institute — *National Unity*. Peking, August 1961. p. 21. For the Tibet Institute — *New China News Release*, Hong Kong, August 8, 1965.

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